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ABSTRACT

The numbers of culturally and linguistically diverse students in classrooms at all levels of study are increasing dramatically. In addition, the available information indicates that in general they are not performing well scholastically. Five articles address this issue; they are remarks from a 1992 symposium of members from the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages and from the American Educational Research Association. The article titles and authors follow: "Cognitive Academic Language Needs of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students" (Merrill Swain); "Assessing the Academic and Cognitive Growth of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students" (Else V. Hamayan); "Current Directions in Curriculum Development and Materials Preparation for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students" (JoAnn Crandall); "Shifting Conceptions of Pedagogical Equity: Preparing Teachers to Teach Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students" (Donald Freeman); and "Information Dissemination and Collaboration with Diverse Constituencies" (Denise McKeon). (JP)

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Policy and Practice in the Education of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students

ED 365 137

G. Richard Tucker, Editor

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Policy and Practice in the Education of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students: Views from Language Educators

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The demography of the United States is changing dramatically as is that of our school systems and workplaces: We are becoming ever more culturally and linguistically diverse. According to data from the 1990 census, both the number of foreign-born as a percentage of the total population and the percentage of individuals who typically speak a language other than English at home have increased significantly since 1980. During a period when the population of the country as a whole increased by approximately 10%, the native-Spanish-speaking population increased by more than 50%; the Native American, Eskimo and Aleut groups grew by more than 35%; and the number of Asian and Pacific Islanders more than doubled (Waggoner, 1992). Overall, the number of speakers of languages other than English in the United States increased by slightly more than 38%—from 23 million to more than 31 million individuals.

Because the minority populations tend to be younger than the native-born majority population in this country, more and more of the entrants to our schools and to our workforce are language minority individuals, and this trend will probably continue for the foreseeable future (see, e.g., Christian, 1993; Johnston & Packer, 1987; Tucker, 1990; Vobejda, 1992; Waggoner, 1992). Two examples may help to illustrate the magnitude of this trend: In the spring of 1991, more than 980,000 students in the California public school system were limited-English-proficient (LEP) individuals—an increase of 73% since 1986 (Lambert, 1992). Thus, more than one out of every six pupils in the California system is limited in terms of English proficiency, and the number is rapidly rising. The fact that the highest concentration of such individuals is found in kindergarten, where 29% of the students are LEP, helps to signal the urgency of this trend. This phenomenon is by no means restricted to the state of California; we find similar increases in the number of culturally and linguistically diverse students in almost every local educational agency throughout the country. (And, it should also be noted, a relative decrease in the number of such individuals entering the teaching profession.)

Simultaneously, an unprecedented number of adults are seeking to participate in scarce adult basic education programs. It is estimated that between 35% to 50% of those currently enrolled are language minority (LM) individuals in adult ESL programs. A recent study of the liberal arts curriculum of community colleges conducted by the Center for the Study of Community Colleges revealed that ESL is the single most rapidly growing subject area in the country (Ignash, 1992/1993). Johnston and Packer (1987) have estimated that three quarters of the individuals who will comprise the U.S. workforce in the year 2000 are already working—while the majority of the new entrants will be native-born minorities, newcomers who are from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds, or females. Unless we are able to prepare these individuals with the literacy, numeracy, problem-solving, and decision-making skills that they will need to compete effectively in the workplace of tomorrow, the United States may well be moving rapidly toward a two-tiered society.

Thus, the numbers of culturally and linguistically diverse students in our classrooms at all levels of study are increasing dramatically. In addition, the available information indicates that in general they are *not* performing well scholastically. The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) has noted in a report that the level of academic achievement by LM youngsters continues to lag significantly below that of the majority counterparts (CCSSO, 1991). This differentially poor achievement poses a significant challenge to all concerned with the provision of educational services. Culturally and linguistically diverse children increasingly occur in *all* of the classrooms across our country. The likelihood exists that *every* classroom teacher will have such students in class. And available information indicates that many of our teachers are not well enough prepared to meet the needs of such students. Members of the educational association Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) have a longstanding commitment and a great deal of training and experience in providing effective, high quality services to such students; but we have often found that our efforts and work have been marginalized within the school system. Furthermore, we have frequently *not* been included in the early rounds of discussions concerning educational reform despite the fact that we provide

services to an increasingly large number of participating students. As educators throughout the country explore ways to improve the quality and the delivery of educational services for all youngsters for the 21st century, members of TESOL wish to participate actively in helping to define the agenda and contribute to the impending reform.

Against this backdrop, TESOL administrators and officers have been determined to reach out to their colleagues in other professional associations to explore ways in which we might collaboratively address the educational needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students. Representatives from TESOL met during the fall and winter of 1992 with their counterparts from the American Educational Research Association (AERA) to begin a series of discussions about ways to initiate a continuing dialogue among officers, members, and opinion leaders of our two organizations. We decided that as a first step we would each convene a panel at the annual spring convention of the other association. As chance would have it, both associations held their annual conventions in Atlanta, Georgia during the second week of April 1993. As the initial contribution, Lee Shulman, of Stanford University, organized a five-member AERA panel that explored the theme, Systemic Reform, Student Cognition and Assessment: Views From the Research Community" at the TESOL convention.

We chose to focus our panel for the AERA meeting around the theme, "Policy and Practice in the Education of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students: Views From Language Educators." Members of the panel were specifically chosen for their long and recognized association with TESOL, and for their demonstrated long-term personal and professional commitment to removing the barriers to full and effective participation in our educational system by culturally and linguistically diverse learners.

The papers that follow comprise the edited and, in some cases, slightly expanded remarks from the symposium. Our goal was to begin by introducing members of the audience to the special language-related needs of LEP youngsters (Swain); then to focus on the ways in which those involved in assessment (Hamayan), curriculum development and materials preparation (Crandall), and teacher preparation (Freeman) are meeting these needs. We also tried in our presentations to identify issues that still need to be addressed—by TESOL members working collaboratively with members from other organizations concerned with the delivery of educational services. We concluded by describing the work of a special TESOL task force on the education of LM students in the United States (McKeon). I served as the moderator for the session and made a variety of synthetic comments concerning the changing demography, the disproportionately low level of achievement by many culturally and linguistically diverse youngsters, and by summarizing the gaps in our knowledge about such students. We hope that this collection of brief papers will serve both as a record of the symposium and also that it will provide a set of reference materials for individuals concerned with the state of our knowledge and the emerging direction of our practice with respect to the education of such learners.

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Cognitive Academic Language Needs of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students

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In the theoretical and research literature concerned with the education of culturally and linguistically diverse students, a distinction has been drawn between two types of language: the language of everyday communication versus the language that is required to succeed in carrying out the cognitive and academic tasks of schooling.

It is inappropriate to think of these as two distinct languages as they are linked both conceptually and developmentally. For the moment, however, let me characterize each one. On the one hand, the language of everyday communication is fluent, highly contextualized by the situation, interactive, and hence marked by comprehension checks such as "y'know what I mean?". Its use tends to be associated with an oral rather than a written mode. On the other hand, cognitive academic language tends to be associated with a written rather than an oral mode. It is decontextualized language: language that is not supported by clues to meaning through gestures, realia or pictures as everyday communication often is. It may be less fluently generated as one struggles with producing a precise message as coherently and appropriately as possible, or it may be more difficult to understand with its particular syntax and specialized terminology.

Different terms have been used by different investigators to refer to this distinction, but the basic contrast has been captured by Bruner's (1975) distinction between communicative and analytic competence, by Olson's (1977) utterance and text, by Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1981) conversation and composition, and by Cummins' (1981a) context-embedded and context-reduced language proficiency.

The significance of this distinction is three-fold. I'll state the significance and then come back and deal with each one in a little more detail.

First, it helps to explain why children from language backgrounds other than English may—even though they seem to be fluent speakers of English—take considerable time to reach grade-appropriate levels in school.

Second, it allows us to make sense of the paradox that the more time spent studying in the minority language, the better students' academic skills are in English.

And third, it offers a reason for collaborative learning as an important approach to pedagogy in our schools.

To return to the first point: The distinction between everyday communicative skills and cognitive academic language helps us understand that students' ease and fluency in English—a characteristic of many children from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds—are not necessarily indicative of their ability to deal with the language of schooling. Educators may be fooled by the verbal fluency of language minority (LM) children's English, such that they do not think possible that failure in school could have a linguistic basis. However, research demonstrates that minority students with fluent conversational skills in English may still lack the necessary cognitive academic language to adequately comprehend content-based instruction and participate fully in the academic dialogue that constitutes mainstream educational programs.

Studies by, for example, Cummins (1981b) or Collier (1987), indicate that while conversational abilities may be acquired fairly rapidly in a second language—within 2 years, it may take more than 5 years for students from non-English backgrounds to attain grade-appropriate levels in academically related aspects of their second language.

In fact, many children from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds never catch up to their grade level: They remain behind, with the gap sometimes widening rather than closing.

The cognitive academic language needs of these students can, in part, be supplied through their first language. In a survey of recent research, Cummins (1991) concludes that cognitive academic language abilities are interdependent across languages such that knowledge and skills acquired in one language are potentially available in the other. Thus, one of the best predictors of how well students from non-English backgrounds will succeed in an English-only program is how well they are doing academically in their own language, assuming, of course, that they have been at least partially educated in that language.

This takes us to my second point, that time on task—that is, time learning English may be inversely related to the ability to function academically in English. This is because, through education in their first language, students are able to continue to learn relevant academic and cognitive skills while they acquire the necessary language skills in English. Students' linguistic and cognitive development is not left behind while they engage in the task of learning another language. There are many studies that provide evidence of this. The results of a recent large-scale study of several thousand Hispanic children make it particularly clear. The study—by Ramirez et al. (1991)—indicates that the Hispanic students who received the most intensive and sustained Spanish instruction throughout elementary school in a late-exit bilingual program, decreased the gap between their scores and grade-level norms with each passing year in school. The Ramirez report concludes that:

> Students who were provided with a substantial and consistent primary language development program learned mathematics, English language, and English reading skills as fast or faster than the norming population used in this study. As their growth in these academic skills is atypical of disadvantaged youth, it provides support for the efficacy of primary language development in facilitating the acquisition of English language skills. (p. 36)

In a review of this study by a National Academy of Sciences Review team (Meyer & Fienberg, 1992) a number of concerns were raised, but the review team did *not* question the accuracy or power of Ramirez's conclusions.

The third point I want to make is to note the growing evidence that collaborative learning approaches to instruction foster both second language learning and learning through language. These—language learning and learning through language—are essential to the development of cognitive academic language proficiency.

Collaborative learning involves learners actively in the learning process through exploration, inquiry and interaction. Academic and cognitive benefits have been observed among students engaged in collaborative learning relative to students in teacher-fronted classes.

Group work is also considered to enhance second language learning. In group work, students speak more than in teacher-fronted classes (Long & Porter, 1985), they use a greater range of linguistic functions—questioning, explaining, clarifying, generalizing, describing, defining, classifying, evaluating—in the context of challenging content and tasks (McGroarty, 1993), and they put more effort into trying to make their meaning clear to other students without the teacher's help (Kagan, 1986).

Garcia (1991) recently reviewed research documenting effective instructional practices used in the education of linguistically and culturally diverse students in selected sites throughout the United States. Among the attributes identified in common among these sites was that "instruction was organized in such a way that students were required to interact with each other utilizing collaborative learning techniques."

To quote Garcia:

> It was during student–student interactions that most higher order cognitive and linguistic discourse was observed. Students asked each other hard questions and challenged each other's answers more readily than they did in interactions with the teacher. Moreover, students were likely to seek assistance from other students and were successful in obtaining it. (p. 4)

To summarize, recognizing a distinction between the language of everyday communication and cognitive academic language—a distinction that has been made by a number of theorists and received considerable empirical support—helps us as educators focus on the cognitive academic linguistic needs of language minority students. In the past decade we have learned that it takes children considerably longer to acquire cognitive academic linguistic proficiency than it does to acquire fluent conversational skills; that because cognitive academic linguistic proficiency is interdependent across languages, strength in the primary language enhances and hastens its development in another language; and finally, that the use of collaborative learning techniques strengthens the growth of cognitive academic language proficiency in both languages.

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Assessing the Academic and Cognitive Growth of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students

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Over the past decade, there has been increased awareness of the challenges faced by culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students and their teachers. One of the challenges that continues to face educators is in the assessment and subsequent placement of students in appropriate instructional contexts. In general, research shows that CLD students are more quickly referred for academic and behavioral problems than are students from the mainstream (Ortiz & Maldonado-Colon, 1986). A survey of the literature suggests that the problem of inappropriate placement of CLD students is largely due to inappropriate assessment procedures. A number of potential reasons are likely for these inappropriate assessment procedures.

First, many professionals who are primarily responsible for assessing CLD students may not be aware of the special characteristics those students bring to the assessment situation; they may be unaware of the normal process of second language development and of the limitations of many assessment instruments for that diverse population. Second, teachers may have a tendency to judge students' performance with little consideration of linguistic and cultural differences; this is particularly a problem when judgments by teachers in the absence of linguistic and cultural contexts lead to placement of CLD students in special education or remedial programs. Third, interpretation of assessment results may be a problem when dealing with CLD students. Unlike monolingual mainstream culture students, the interpretation of CLD

students' assessment results must take into consideration a number of additional factors that are often not considered, such as their level of English and native language proficiency, language(s) of instruction, cultural and interactional differences, and past educational experiences.

Further, many researchers and educators believe that the assessment process in schools is itself inherently biased against CLD students: The process tends to locate problems or a failure to grow and develop primarily within the student rather than within the poor educational practices of our school systems or within the larger home and societal contexts of the students (Cummins, 1989; Figueroa, 1983). We tend to talk about "at-risk students" much more readily than we talk about school environments that make the learning process a high-risk one for particular groups of students. The overall result is that current approaches to assessment frequently yield negative consequences for CLD students. Furthermore, they typically fail to provide the benefits that evaluators and teacher should expect from an assessment procedure.

As teachers, psychologists, and other school personnel attempt to improve the state of assessment of CLD students and continue to scrutinize and refine current practices, the following questions emerge:

1. How can we assess CLD students' cognitive and academic growth, abilities, and possibly disabilities, when the students are not proficient in the language of testing?
2. How can we accurately assess CLD students' cognitive and academic growth, abilities, and possibly disabilities, when the students are unfamiliar with the social norms underlying tests and the assessment procedure?
3. What types of assessment not only satisfy the requirements of the school but also give teachers and other service providers clear guidelines as to the components and models of instruction a student needs?

In attempting to answer these questions and in trying to assess the cognitive and academic growth of CLD students, we are frequently placed in a perplexing situation. On the one hand, as agents of the system, we recognize the importance of assessment in schools and the sometimes rigid guidelines within which we have to function. On the other hand, as advocates for the students, we understand the problems inherent in current approaches to assessment and the potential for inappropriate identification of some CLD students' cognitive and academic growth (Damico & Hamayan, 1991).

The dilemma that often arises from the conflict between assessors' role as agents of the system and their role as advocates for the student is a significant one because assessors function as "gatekeepers" who determine what type of instruction CLD students will receive (Deyhle, 1987). Consequently, these professionals have an obligation to function as advocates for any student, ensuring that academic and cognitive growth is, in fact, being assessed in a valid way. The problems inherent in assessment confound this obligation. As a result, some assessors acting as student advocates are reluctant to include CLD students in standardized assessment processses. They view the current state of practice in communicative, academic, and cognitive assessment as biased against CLD students and thus often seek to avoid the entire testing procedure. This raises questions about the accountability of schools toward their diverse, and often minority, populations, which generally tend to be disenfranchised from the mainstream educational context (Ogbu, 1978).

Culturally and linguistically diverse students are best served when the assessor works within the system with a circumspect attitude toward bias that is reflected in the assessment practices, such as routine examination of all the extrinsic or circumstantial factors that may affect a CLD student's performance as well as those that may affect interpretation of assessment results. A true advocate develops the influence and ability to work within the system to obtain appropriate assessment and placement for students (Damico & Hamayan, 1991). Positive results are most likely to be obtained through an assessment process that is multiple referenced and that incorporates information about the student in a variety of contexts obtained from a variety of sources through a variety of procedures (Genesee & Hamayan, in press). Variety in the assessment procedure, which yields information about the student from different sources in multiple contexts, is key for the accurate assessment of CLD students because their experiences in school are likely to be varied: The array of skills and repertoires that they experience in the English as a second language (ESL) class may be different from those experienced in the mainstream classroom; similarly, their home life may be quite different from their school life. Because of this variety, students' performance in these diverse contexts must be assessed by both individuals who know the student in each of those contexts as well as by outside observers. It is not uncommon for an ESL teacher to have

a very different evaluation of a child than his or her music or science teacher, for example.

Because of the need for assessment of students in various contexts and because of the need for input from different sources of information, teachers become an integral part of the assessment process. Effective assessment practices are likely to be classroom-based, or at least to rely heavily on information obtained primarily from classroom-based procedures. This implies an expansion of the teacher's role from that of instructor to that of an assessor. Classroom-based assessment is part of a process that involves three components: collecting information, interpreting information, and making decisions about instruction, students, or both (Genesee & Hamayan, in press). The third component, decision making, is an important one, because it requires that we modify our perception, from a learner-centered view to a system-wide view of learning. It requires an acceptance of the view that when we assess a learner, we obtain information not only about the learner, but also about the learning environment that the student is in as well as the environment outside the classroom.

Effective assessment requires planning. When thinking about a plan for assessment, the following questions are relevant:

- Who will use the results and for what purpose?
- What will be assessed?
- When will assessment occur?
- How will assessment proceed?
- How will the results be recorded?
- How will the results be interpreted?

In the following sections, I will focus very briefly on two points: what to assess and how to assess (Genesee & Hamayan, in press).

WHAT TO ASSESS

First, it is important to assess mastery of content area objectives in a way that represents as clearly as possible what the CLD students has mastered in the various areas of the curriculum. The same content objectives should be used to assess the achievement of CLD and mainstream students alike—lower standards of achievement should not be established for CLD students. Assessment of content area mastery should neither be limited to English nor to purely language-based methods of measurement. Many CLD students will have mastered academic concepts and skills in their first language (Hakuta, 1986) or may be unable to express their knowledge using English. In such cases, academic assessment in only English will result in serious underestimates of their academic achievement. Many school districts use the lack of standardized tests in languages other than English as an excuse to avoid assessing students in their native language. However, many of the informal or alternative assessment procedures being adopted in some school districts, such as ongoing observation of performance (see Herman, Aschbacher, & Winters, 1992, for a guide to alternative assessment), can be adapted for use quite effectively in languages other than English.

Second, students' proficiency in SL needs to be assessed for two purposes: to gauge the progress that students are making in ESL and to provide some baseline for interpreting students' performance in the academic content areas that are taught in English, that is, in the mainstream classrooms. In order to assess proficiency in a second language, the recommendation for variety of sources, methods, and contexts must be followed. In addition, assessors must take into account the complexity of proficiency, including the notion that success in school entails proficiency in contextualized concrete language as well as decontextualized abstract language (Cummins, 1991). In order to interpret results of academic content area assessment, one needs to keep in mind the level of proficiency that a student has developed in English as well as the length of time that it typically takes to be able to process cognitively demanding content area information (see Collier, 1987).

Assessment of native language proficiency is also important because it provides essential information for structuring instruction for CLD students. This should be done regardless of whether a native language component is included in the curriculum that CLD students are given. Although native language instruction promotes CLD students' educational success in English (Snow, 1990), development or maintenance of proficiency in languages other than English is an educational goal in very few schools.

Third, it is essential to know and understand the backgrounds of students and the strategies and processes that mediate their classroom-based learning. Background characteristics such as literacy in the home, parents' educational backgrounds, and previous educational experiences provide essential information for both teachers and administrators (see Cloud, 1991, for a sample questionnaire) and must be part of the assessment framework.

In this framework, then, assessment goes beyond the traditional limitations of achievement testing; it includes

information about the whole student—past, present, and future. It must include information about achievement or the outcome of learning, background factors that influence students' performance in class, and the learning process as it occurs in the classroom (Genesee & Hamayan, in press). Because of the wide scope and sometimes informal characteristic of this framework of assessment, interpreting assessment information and making specific instructional decisions inevitably will call for a great deal of judgment. The quality of assessors' judgments will depend on their beliefs, intuitions, and previous experience. As well, the quality of the decision making will depend in significant ways on the quality of assessment procedures used. Therefore, it is important that teachers and assessors develop a repertoire of effective assessment techniques for use in their classrooms.

HOW TO ASSESS

Several alternative methods of assessment currently being used in mainstream education are also effective in the assessment of CLD students. Although it is suggested that various aspects of learning and performance be assessed through a variety of approaches, it is not intended that several alternative assessment methods be used at all times. Some assessors may decide to use one or two methods as primary sources of information, supplemented by information from other procedures. The assessor must decide which method or combination of methods is the most appropriate for a particular purpose at any given time. Methods such as observation, conferencing, and journal writing significantly enhance information obtained through more traditional testing procedures and may be especially useful because they reveal unexpected or unplanned aspects of teaching and learning in the classroom (Genesee & Hamayan, in press).

Ultimately, each of us must decide which methods best meet our needs and how to use the information obtained from assessment. To be effective, assessment has to correspond to the unique circumstances of unique groups of CLD students in unique classroom settings. But most importantly, by adopting an advocacy-oriented approach at the same time as we use the knowledge and strategies that are currently available to us, we can ensure that the assessment process will be an empowering tool for both teachers and students.

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Current Directions in Curriculum Development and Materials Preparation for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students

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Because of refugee resettlement, immigration, and a host of other factors, the United States is undergoing dramatic demographic changes that profoundly affect our elementary, secondary, adult, and college classrooms. Although homogeneity was always a myth (O'Malley & Waggoner, 1984), today's classroom is likely to bring together even more linguistically and culturally diverse students, with different educational backgrounds and degrees of literacy, different expectations of school and schooling, as well as a number of other linguistic, sociocultural, economic, political, and educational differences.

PROGRAM AND CURRICULAR OPTIONS

Traditionally, three types of programs have been provided for language minority (LM) students: maintenance (late exit) bilingual education, transitional (early exit) bilingual education, or English as a second language (ESL). As their names imply, the major difference in these programs involves the role of the first language. Maintenance programs teach first language literacy and some combination of first language and English-medium subject matter instruction for up to 6 years, with a goal of helping a student develop the first language while also acquiring English. Transitional programs also teach first language literacy and provide some first language subject matter instruction, but generally for only 3 years, making clear that the emphasis is on a transition to English-medium instruction. ESL is a component of both bilingual programs, but in an ESL program, the focus is on English language and literacy development, with first language support sometimes provided by bilingual aides or materials.

The greatest number of LM students receive only ESL, often because schools have students who speak a number of languages, making bilingual education more difficult. This is unfortunate, because a preponderance of research evidence (see Swain, this volume) suggests that first language literacy and academic instruction is important not only for sociocultural and cognitive reasons but also because the skills developed in the first language transfer quite readily to a second language (English) once appropriate second language forms are learned. That is, one only needs to learn how to read or to solve algebra problems once.

For those schools offering only ESL, the challenge is to provide sufficient cognitive and academic language development in a second language so that LM students are able to achieve at the same level as their English-speaking peers. Studies by Cummins (1981) and Collier (1987, 1989) have shown that LM students acquire social language in 1–2 years but need 5–7 years to develop the academic language proficiency required to participate fully in classes in which English is the medium of instruction.

SOME NEW MODELS

Because students cannot be asked to wait 5–7 years before being presented with grade-appropriate subject matter, nor can academic language skills be developed in the absence of academically challenging tasks and texts drawn from the regular curriculum, a number of different instructional or curricular options have been developed to provide for simultaneous linguistic and cognitive development in English (Crandall, 1993). Although programs differ in terms of who provides the instruction, the amount of time allotted, and the sequence of courses, all involve some sort of integration of language teaching with subject matter instruction, reflecting both the insights of practical experience and the results of preliminary research into the specific linguistic demands of various content areas (e.g., studies of the English language structures of mathematics or of scientific discourse and how they are problematic, especially for students receiving instruction through English while they are also in the process of acquiring it as a second language (Cuevas, 1984; Mohan, 1986; Rosebery et al., 1992; Spanos et al., 1988).

One approach is to increase the subject matter or cognitive load of the ESL classroom through content-based ESL instruction, with an ESL teacher developing instruction that addresses conceptual and thinking/study skills, in addition to language objectives. The ESL teacher may draw upon literature, texts, and tasks from various parts of the regular curriculum, organizing it thematically into a unit (e.g., on the environment) or may limit the focus to a specific curricular area such as math or history. In some cases, particularly in elementary grades, the ESL teacher may be responsible for providing

an integrated ESL/math or ESL/social studies course, which LM students take in lieu of the regular class.

Another approach is for content area teachers to adapt instruction so that LM students can understand and benefit from grade-appropriate subject matter. Sheltered English or sheltered classes use techniques from language classes such as demonstrations, visuals, paraphrases, and cooperative or small group interaction to make the regular content curriculum comprehensible to LM students who have some English language proficiency (i.e., an intermediate level). The same techniques can also be used by content teachers who have both limited English proficient (LEP) and English-speaking students in their classes, in what has been referred to as "language sensitive content instruction" (Crandall & Tucker, 1990).

Both ESL and subject matter teachers can also work together in some kind of paired approach such as team teaching, adjunct courses, or the development of an integrated curriculum.

What appears to be the most promising instructional sequence for these courses, ideally with first language support, is basic ESL, followed by content-based ESL, then sheltered instruction (in a sequence of science, math, then social studies) or some paired program, and finally full participation in an English-medium instructional program. Although math has been traditionally the first subject in which students are transitioned into English-medium instruction, science may be a better choice because science offers more possibilities for demonstrating meaning and understanding and for encouraging interaction and language development. There is general agreement that social studies should be last because of the background knowledge required, but because language teachers often find it most compatible with their training, it is often the first integrated course (i.e., ESL/Social Studies) students receive.

Especially in secondary school programs, substantial restructuring of the school program may also be required, involving longer periods and fewer subjects, greater opportunities for collaboration among teachers of the same students, a close relationship between a teacher and student throughout the student's time in school; and peer and cross-age tutoring.

PROMISING PRACTICES

From these models, some promising directions for both language and subject matter instruction have emerged. These include basing the ESL curriculum on other subject matter while also attending to language development and increasing the cognitive nature of the ESL classroom through greater attention to thinking skills, study skills, and problem solving. For content classes, they include providing the same basic curriculum for LM students, but adapting it to reflect both their linguistic development and prior knowledge, while also paying greater attention to vocabulary and schema development. An increase in task-based and cooperative activities, promoting interaction and communication and leading to both linguistic and cognitive development, and the use of graphic organizers to reflect knowledge structures and help develop thinking and study skills are potentially useful to both language and content teachers (Crandall & Tucker, 1990; Short, 1991). A survey currently being conducted by the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) of content ESL programs across the country, with case studies of 20 exemplary programs, should provide a clearer description of effective ESL and content area practice and program design.

NEW DIRECTIONS IN MATERIALS AND TEXTBOOKS

ESL materials and textbooks do not look much like language textbooks from the past: There is much more attention to academic contexts and topics, requiring thinking, discussion, and problem solving; much more opportunity for interaction and collaboration; and more attention to learning strategies and reading and writing development. That is, ESL textbooks increasingly reflect a concern with cognitive academic language development. There is also much more attention to the first languages and cultures of students, with many programs using folk tales, fables, and other stories drawn from a wide variety of cultures, some of which are read in the first language. LM students are more likely to encounter curriculum materials that reflect their own experiences and provide opportunities to construct images of themselves as thinkers, learners, and writers.

However, the need for materials for LM students in the secondary school is great, especially for those who come to school with limited prior or interrupted formal education. Textbooks are also needed for sheltered classes. Ideally, these texts would parallel regular texts but offer alternatives for developing the same basic knowledge.

Although large-scale survey and some comparative programmatic research has been undertaken, there is a great need for classroom-centered research, focusing on techniques and materials which are most effective in facilitating linguistic and cognitive development of LM students. Ethnographic research, classroom comparisons,

and evaluation research could all help articulate a core curriculum (not just what textbooks address) and identify optimal ways of presenting it so that LM students can achieve at levels equal to those of their English-speaking counterparts.

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Shifting Conceptions of Pedagogical Equity: Preparing Teachers to Teach Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students

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NEW AND FAMILIAR CHALLENGES

As a practitioner and a researcher in teacher education, I am concerned with how we prepare teachers to work with students whose home languages and cultures differ from the teacher's own. From the perspective of English as a Second Language (ESL) education, this is in some ways a new challenge; in other ways, it is not new at all. The changing demographics in North American schools have created a new and different terrain for the classroom teacher, one in which students and teacher may not share the language that is the medium of instruction with equal comfort, fluency, and reference. This situation calls for understanding teaching and learning in new ways primarily because it exposes some of the monocultural givens on which teacher education practices have operated. These givens are assumptions about the nature and classroom practice of pedagogical equity.

However the requirements of diversity also present familiar challenges to those who prepare teachers as second language specialists. These teacher candidates may speak more than one language themselves and often have had experience living and working outside of their own countries and cultures. In this way, they differ from the usual profile of those now entering the teaching profession (Darling-Hammond, 1984).

Furthermore, in North American education, ESL teachers have always taught linguistically and culturally diverse students. These teachers have been the students' first point of contact with schooling and often with the dominant culture. ESL teachers are the people who ease student entry into the unfamiliar territory of classroom interactions, social relationships, academic expectations, and the modus operandi of schools and classrooms. So although the changes in the student population are not new, these demographics have intensified the need and demands on the ESL teacher's role. Realizing pedagogical equity in schools, classrooms, and lessons is a constant demand that ESL teachers now face on a daily basis in their professional lives. Recently these demands have accelerated at a pace for which even these professionals were unprepared.

Although preparing new teachers to take on this role is a familiar challenge, it is not an easy one for at least two reasons. First, educating anyone, teachers included, for diversity is itself a complex undertaking. Recognizing, working with, and benefiting from diversity runs counter to many of the socioculturally homogenizing practices of schools and schooling (Liston & Zeichner, 1990). To focus on diversity without seeking to remove or even reduce differences may involve reshaping some of the assumptions of schooling. However, because they have been viewed as specialists in a minority problem, ESL teachers may not be professionally well positioned to force this challenge to the center of policy-making discussions. This leads to the second issue, that of the professional knowledge base. The notion of specialized knowledge on which second language teacher education is organized may well be counterproductive to efforts to make diversity the central challenge in North American education.

EDUCATING TEACHERS FOR DIVERSITY

To return to the first issue, that of educating teachers for diversity. Research in multicultural education (McDiarmid, 1990) and in teacher learning (Richardson, 1990) continues to suggest that changing teachers' minds about the unique needs of learners from diverse backgrounds is a complicated process, one that is often unsuccessful in many teacher education programs. In preparing candidates to work with diversity, the common assumption has been that "Giving teachers knowledge about the cultures of various groups will enhance teachers' abilities to teach children from these groups" (NCRTL, 1992, p. 3). However, as a summary statement of a 5-year study[1] by the (U.S.) National Center for Research on Teacher Learning (1992) concludes:

> Despite various attempts to prepare teachers and teacher candidates to teach diverse students, few of the teachers studied could move beyond the two contradictory moral imperatives of teaching—to treat all children equally and to respond to each child as an individual. Indeed, some teachers became even more persuaded that certain children cannot learn certain content. (p. 3)

To influence thinking about diversity, the process of teacher education needs to decenter candidates' expectations, norms, and givens, and thus open up new perceptions of possibility. Teacher candidates, who themselves have generally been schooled in relatively monocultural environments, need to be challenged on many of the preconceptions which they have developed through their "apprenticeship of observation": the 13,000 hours they have spent as learners throughout their school careers (Lortie, 1975, p. 61). Information about diverse learners seems to do little to accomplish this decentering. Thus, teacher educators need to examine how such shifts can best be effected which is, evidently, more a question of educational process than one of content.

THE NOTION OF SPECIALIZED KNOWLEDGE BASE

The second challenge, that the specialist orientation of second language teacher education is becoming counterproductive, is linked to a complex of structural and sociopolitical issues. As long as linguistically and culturally diverse learners were a clear minority in schools, they could be—and generally were—treated as a "specialized" problem. ESL learners were taught by ESL teachers. However, that rationale now no longer holds, if it ever should have. Children whose home languages and cultures are other than English form the majority in a great many classrooms and schools, and city and state educational systems are struggling with how to provide educational services for these learners.

Throughout this transition, ESL teachers have continued to work at the margins, with their professional knowledge and expertise generally unrecognized. Classroom teachers, who have had little professional preparation in this endeavor, are increasingly called upon to deal with the widespread challenge of educating learners from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. This is justified in part by a prevailing social and systemic assumption that because the challenge is one of language, and because classroom teachers are usually native speakers of that language, English, their general pedagogical knowledge equips them to address the needs of these learners. This assumption has plagued the field of second language education: Because people can and do

master English without teachers, ESL teachers have no subject matter and therefore no specialized expertise—the commonplace that if you can speak English, you can teach it.

To counteract this assumption, many in second language teacher education have argued for greater specialization and definition of the professional knowledge base (TESOL, 1982). The aim has been to focus attention on the distinct knowledge, skills, attitudes, and understandings that ESL teachers bring. Although laudable, this effort may be increasingly counter-productive. Within the structure of education as it is now practiced in schools, specialist knowledge is rarely brought to bear on generalist problems. Thus, ESL teacher education is at odds with itself. Fostering a specialist knowledge base can serve to create a professional identity for ESL teachers; however, it may also serve to keep them apart from the mainstream discourse on education. The most viable alternative is to introduce a solid foundation in ESL pedagogy through general teacher education as a cross-cutting rather than a specialist concern. The argument is that, in light of the classrooms in which they will work, what good ESL teachers know, all classrooms teachers should know. In fact several states, among them California and Florida, are now adopting this approach through their new certification requirements.

These issues of educating for diversity and notion of specialized knowledge base create a larger frame within which to examine the central challenges of second language teacher education, the challenges of creating and sustaining conceptions of pedagogical equity. The diagram below is useful in illustrating the interrelation between these major framing issues.

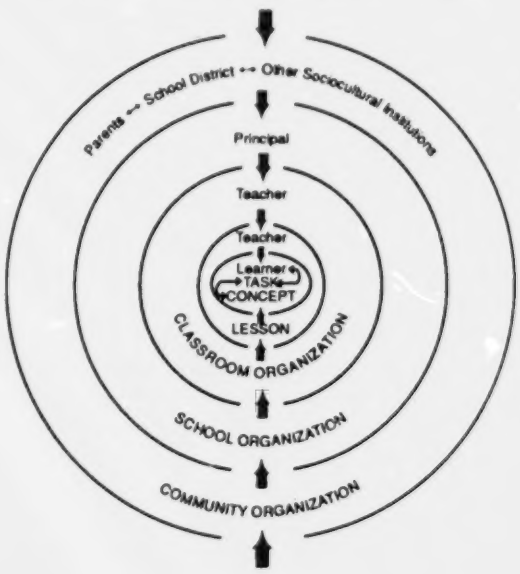
The question of the role of the specialist knowledge base is one that draws on the outer circles of community, administration, and schooling; it is, as I have argued, a sociopolitical issue in response to the status of ESL teachers in schools and communities. The issue of changing minds about diversity goes to the core of the educational process, cutting across the center three circles of teaching and learning in classrooms. It is here that the work of teacher education lies in changing teachers' conceptions of pedagogical equity. Because information alone is not effective, this work must entail attention to the processes of teacher education.

CHANGING TEACHERS' CONCEPTIONS OF PEDAGOGICAL EQUITY

Examining such processes is a relatively new undertaking in teacher education generally, and it is quite uncommon in second language teacher education (see Flowerdew, Brock, & Hsia, 1992; and Johnson, 1992, for two notable exceptions). I turn now to one such investigation, a recent 2-year longitudinal study that followed a group of second language teachers as they were learning to teach through an in-service MA program in second language teacher education (Freeman, 1992). The study examined whether and how the teacher education they were receiving was influencing their understandings of their classroom practice. In brief, the study found that the teachers became engaged, through the teacher education program, in a different way of conceptualizing teaching. That process emerged gradually and subtly over the more than 2 years of the study, initially through the teachers' use of professional discourse about teaching and increasingly in their classroom practices.

At the heart of this reorientation was a shift that emerged in the notion of what it meant to treat students the same in the lesson, in other words what it meant to teach equitably. This shift in the teachers' conception of pedagogical equity reoriented their ideas about students in relation to the subject matter, in this case, their thinking about learners in relation to language. The teachers entered the teacher education program with a normative

Figure 1
Embedded Contexts (Cole & Griffin, 1987, p. 7)



view that judged students in terms of the content. In a sense, good students were those who understood the content; poor students were those who, for various reasons, did not. Thus, pedagogical equity involved uniformity.

Treating students the same meant that all students should be taught the same content, in the same way, and learning should be evaluated according to their relative success in meeting this standardized pedagogy. Thus students were in effect measured by how much content they had learned, as one teacher in the study described it:

> The first year I was teaching, I was the teacher and they were the students. I would not make their lives easier by introducing them to an activity, by seeing what they already knew, or seeing if they had any prior knowledge. . . Instead I felt, "Here it is; let's do it!"

It is important to recognize that this view of equity as uniformity was not necessarily explicitly stated in these teachers' workplaces; however, it seemed to be promulgated through the social practices, assumptions, and shared explanations of teaching in their schools as well as by the teachers' own experiences as students.

Through the teacher education program, the teachers in the study began to reverse this perception. They came to perceive the content in terms of the students, and thus to evaluate their lessons based on what students could do with the content. As their conceptions of pedagogical equity shifted, treating students fairly became less a matter of standardization and more one of individuation. A teacher described the change:

> A couple of years ago, it [the focus of teaching] was mainly on the content, mainly on the subject and how I was going to get that subject in their [students'] heads and [now] the other [focus] would be "What do they have and how can I help them enable themselves to get the stuff into their heads?"

In this view, equity came to mean starting with individual differences and constructing lessons on that basis. A good lesson became one that provided multiple avenues into the subject matter, that allowed for ongoing assessment and feedback on student progress, and that was based on the fact that different learners brought different strengths and needs, and learned in various ways. In re-aligning their conceptions of pedagogical equity, the teachers were revising their understandings of the relation between students and subject-matter. They moved from judging the student in terms of the content to judging the content in terms of the student.[2]

Such shifts in what it means to teach students equitably carry with them a different conception of the teacher's role, one that, as we have said, may conflict with the general norms and social structures of schooling. When students are judged in terms of the content they have or have not learned, they bear the full responsibility for it. However when they are seen as individuals capable of learning, the teacher begins to share in that responsibility. In talking about this shift from viewing pedagogical equity as uniformity to viewing it as individuation, one teacher attributes it to the teacher education she has received:

> Let's say that I'm a teacher without continuing my education and I say [to my students], "Hey, this is the way I am so you either like it or leave it. Like it or leave it, this is the way I teach." But now I know I'm really just a facilitator and there is a way they can learn and I have got to match it. I've got to meet them somewhere. And so if something is not working, I am not meeting that [the students' way of learning].

THE ROLE OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

To prepare teachers to be effective in the new demographic environment of North American schools, teacher education programs must help teacher candidates to rethink the potential of the learners they will face. In preparing teachers to work with learners from cultural and linguistic backgrounds different from their own, that is, learners who are traditionally marginalized in schools and society, this task is magnified. Pedagogical equity must become a school and system-wide commitment, not a specialist concern. Thus, educating teachers for diversity is in part a matter of redefining what teachers need to understand in their teaching in order to be effective, namely that addressing diverse needs does not conflict with equity. In fact, learners have always been diverse, and perhaps more different than alike, yet those differences have often been masked when they share a language and cultural background. As this inherent variety in learners becomes increasingly public, learning to address it must be the central task in preparing teachers.

This study, as well as other work (see Flowerdew et al., 1992), identifies four characteristics of teacher education programs that seem to foster changes in participating teachers' views of pedagogical equity:

1. Teacher candidates need to take on the role of being learners of their subject matter on a sustained and genuine basis. In second language teacher education programs, this means literally becoming learners in a second

language which is new to them. During this period of time, which should run for at least a semester, the focus is directly on the teacher candidates' own learning and not on modeling pedagogy. The question is how you are learning, not how you are being taught.

2. Teacher candidates need to examine and re-examine what they encounter about teaching in terms of learning. This means experiencing methodologies as learners, not simply as teachers, and it means analyzing the impact on themselves as learners. Through these first two processes, different and diverse reactions are bound to emerge that can provide a basis for rethinking pedagogical equity in practice. As teacher candidates find variety and differences in the responses of their peers to these shared experiences, they are encouraged to extend that thinking into the world of their classrooms.

3. Teacher candidates need to be placed in escalating contexts of practice, from sheltered contexts of microteaching to full-scale contexts of classroom teaching. This means having the opportunity to put into practice their emerging views of learners in increasingly demanding and complex settings. Support for these fledgling views in the face of the norms of schools is crucial (see Richardson, 1990).

4. Teacher candidates need to constantly articulate and re-articulate—to tell and to retell—these experiences (see Liston & Zeichner, 1990). In so doing, their new explanations can begin to take hold and become legitimate in the face of competing norms and expectations of school environments (Freeman, forthcoming).

Clearly none of these processes is a panacea. However, they do focus the central challenge of teacher education on how teaching relates to learning. Reconceiving students' capacities to learn leads inevitably to a reshaping of how teachers understand their own roles and responsibilities in the teaching-learning process. We tend to distract ourselves from this central demand by treating learners who are linguistically and culturally diverse as posing an exotic or more complex challenge. All learners have their differences and idiosyncrasies and we may say that the imperative of teacher education is to work with these differences. In this imperative lies a new definition of fairness and equity. As one teacher observed (Freeman, 1992):

> What used to make me tense in the classroom was somebody telling me, "You have to fit this, this, and this into this lesson." I don't know, it was [probably] me doing that [to myself]. But nobody ever stopped to tell me that, "It's OK, that maybe if you listen to these kids or you watch these kids a little more closely, you'd see that what they're doing is plenty. Take the questions they ask more seriously as a guide to where they are with the material."

To be sure, the new demographic landscape of schools makes this challenge an immediate one, one that requires enhanced skills and knowledge. But at the most fundamental level, the challenge is to develop a thoughtful understanding of learning.

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NOTES

[1] The study, known as Teacher Education and Learning to Teach, was part of the larger multisite research program conducted by the National Center for Research on Education at Michigan State University which examined pre- and in-service teacher education in a variety of subject matters. (NCRTE, 1988).

[2] This shift in views of student and subject matter also seems to occur when teachers embrace such pedagogies as process writing, whole language (for language arts), hands-on math, "everyday" science, or cooperative learning strategies for example. These pedagogies share a constructivist orientation, broadly construed, to learning that focuses on the learners' capacities to make sense of the material or process in which they are engaged (see Bruner, 1990).

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Information Dissemination and Collaboration with Diverse Constituencies

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Two critical ingredients of policy and practice in the education of culturally and linguistically diverse students are the dissemination of information about this important student population and collaboration with policymaking bodies and professional organizations whose work ultimately affects the educational lives of such students. This article addresses both of these areas and provides an overview of the activities of the TESOL Task Force on Policy and Standards for Language Minority Students (K–12) in the United States.

GETTING THE WORD OUT

The education of culturally and linguistically diverse students (particularly those who are limited English proficient [LEP]) has sometimes been viewed by mainstream teachers and administrators as a mysterious quagmire that can be transversed by only the most facile linguists and highly specialized professionals. In addition, the fact that language minority children come to school speaking a language that most mainstream educators do not understand has often resulted in the marginalization of such students from the academic and social life of the school.

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE) was established to demystify the education of language minority (LM) students by providing state-of-the-art materials and technical assistance to inform education policy and practice. Currently housed at the George Washington University in Washington, DC, NCBE offers many services to those seeking information on the education of LM students. First, NCBE provides a tollfree telephone service (which can be reached by dialing 1-800-321-6223) staffed by information specialists who answer questions, make referrals, and conduct searches of the computerized information system (CIS). The CIS is also accessible to the general public; anyone with a computer and a modem can receive a user identification number which provides tollfree entry to a series of bibliographic and resource databases, as well as an information bulletin board.

Next, NCBE provides three types of publications: a bimonthly newsletter called *FORUM*, a series of hands-on instructional and assessment guides, known as *Program Information Guides*, and a series of research and policy papers known as the *FOCUS* series. Publications

are available at no or low cost and span a wide range of topics from strategies for teaching mathematics or science to LEP students to strategies for encouraging parent and community involvement.

REACHING OUT TO MAINSTREAM EDUCATORS AND POLICY MAKERS

In an effort to increase awareness of the educational needs of LM students, TESOL has recently joined the Alliance for Curriculum Reform (ACR). This umbrella organization, composed of many of the major education and professional associations in the United States, was formed in 1992 and grew out of 2 years of intense discussions of curriculum issues centering on the need for comprehensive and balanced curriculum, as well as the need for teaching that is responsive to the complex learning needs of students.

Through its membership in the ACR, TESOL interacts on a regular basis with education leaders in a variety of disciplines: mathematics, the arts, science, social studies, foreign languages. Access to leaders in these fields has provided TESOL with an unprecedented opportunity to inform others about the needs and capabilities of LM students. In addition, the collaborative nature of the ACR has provided TESOL with an opportunity to engage in joint projects, conferences and publications with other ACR members.

Coordination and collaboration of this kind is important to TESOL and its members for a variety of reasons. First, it serves as another approach to demystifying the education of LM students. Interaction on a frequent basis provides the opportunity to share information about LM students with mainstream education leaders in an ongoing, nonthreatening way. Second, such collaboration places the TESOL organization and its members on a par with education professionals in other disciplines. Third, inclusion in a group of discipline-based associations helps to inform others that the teaching of ESL is also discipline driven; that ESL is not just a watered-down version of English language arts.

COLLABORATION WITH OTHER LANGUAGE ORGANIZATIONS

Another important feature of TESOL's collaboration schema has been an effort to work more closely with professional organizations and agencies that share our interest in matters of language education and the education of LM students. TESOL has accomplished this activity in two ways: by continuing and intensifying and ongoing dialogue with other language associations, and by working jointly with the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE) to work on issues of policy related to the education of LEP and LM students in the United States.

One example of this type of collaborative relationship began in the fall of 1992, representatives from TESOL, NABE, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), the National Network on Early Language Learning (NNELL), the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning (NCRCSLL), the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) and NCBE met in Washington, DC to begin to discuss the feasibility of working together on areas of common interest such as teacher preparation and training, materials development and program articulation and coordination. Initial discussions centered on two-way language immersion programs as a focal point. As the meeting progressed, it became apparent that the language organizations had much in common and could benefit from a continuing collaborative working relationship.

The working group decided to write up a report of the results of that first meeting and to publish the report in each of the organization's newsletters (Christian, Draper, McKeon, Rhodes, & Zelasko, 1992). In addition, the group decided to solicit input and feedback from the members of each of the professional associations by sponsoring an open working session at the ACTFL, NABE, and TESOL annual conferences in order to gather support and ideas from the various constituencies. These ideas would then serve to expand the initial meeting held in Washington into an action agenda of activities that could be undertaken as joint, ongoing projects of the associations.

Open working sessions were held at the ACTFL, NABE, and TESOL conferences during 1992–1993. Members of each organization participating in the sessions were enthusiastic about collaborating with their peers in other organizations and suggested strategies for collaboration at the national, regional, and local levels. The working group is now preparing a report that will document the suggestions for collaboration raised in each conference session. The report will appear in the newsletters of each of the associations during the 1993–1994 publication year.

COLLABORATION ON POLICY DEVELOPMENT

Two critical events have shaped TESOL's collaboration activities on policy development: the adoption of the National Education Goals in 1991, and the call for restructured schools in the United States. The

National Education Goals, originally promulgated by the National Governors Association and the President of the United States, provide a vision for the education of all students in the United States by insisting that all students meet high standards of achievement. Restructured schools change the organizational patterns of school in such a way as to shift decision-making processes to those who are closest to students and emphasize authentic learning and assessment (David, 1989; Newmann & Wehlage, 1993).

Although each of these events offers LM and LEP students hope for a better education by making schools accountable for the academic success of all students, neither speaks directly to the special needs of students learning English as a second language (ESL). In order to ensure that the special needs of LM students were not overlooked, TESOL established a Task Force on Policy and Standards for Language Minority Students K–12 in the United States. Composed of teachers, teacher educators, researchers, and policymakers from all parts of the country, the Task Force hopes to define and describe conditions that enhance education of LEP students, and to develop policies that address the needs of these students. One critical feature of the Task Force is the inclusion of NABE. Because NABE and TESOL serve the same student population, it was important to develop a shared vision of education policy and practice.

The Task Force has recently developed and published a set of statements called Access Standards. These standards suggest that schools must provide access to certain types of learning experiences and resources if they hope to help LM students reach the National Education Goals. The standards encompass four areas: (a) access to a positive learning environment, (b) access to appropriate curriculum, (c) access to full delivery of services, and (d) access to equitable assessment. TESOL has made single copies of the standards available free and has also made multiple copies available for distribution through its state and regional affiliates.

The Task Force hopes to begin work on two additional sets of standards: curriculum standards and professional teaching standards. Curriculum standards will outline what LEP students should know and be able to do as a result of ESL instruction. The professional teaching standards will describe what good teachers of LM students should know and be able to do. The development of these standards will take place through a national consensus-building process, with all TESOL members having an opportunity to provide input and advice to the Task Force.

WHAT'S NEXT?

As the population of LM and LEP students grows, so must our efforts to reach out and collaborate with a diverse group of education partners. Because one teacher in two has had or will teach an LEP student in their careers (O'Malley & Waggoner, 1984), TESOL must develop ongoing and strong collaborative ties to mainstream professionals at national, state, and local levels.

In addition, the breadth and depth of education reform in the United States require that TESOL take a more proactive role in developing and disseminating educational policy statements on behalf on LM and LEP students. By doing so, we empower both the students and our members, giving voice to the needs and capabilities of a growing student and teacher body.

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